A
COMPENDIUM
OF
ARITHMETIC.

Arithmetic.

A COMPENDIUM OF Simple Arithmetic;

IN WHICH

THE FIRST RULES

OF

That pleasing Science are made familiar to the

CAPACITIES OF YOUTH.

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ARITHMETIC.

WITHOUT entering into an elaborate history of Arithmetic, (which appears from all accounts we have been able to trace) to be of very ancient date, the authority of Dr. Robertson is sufficient to prove it the most perfect of sciences— and consequently of the greatest utility to the rising generation.

Without a knowledge of it the mercantile concerns of our country cannot be carried to any extent—it is our province then to initiate our youthful readers in the ground work of this pleasing science, which is all we profess—and it is hoped the following simple rules, as they accumulate in years, will stimulate them to further inquiry.

Notation and Numeration.

Notation is the expressing of any proposed number, either by words or characters. All numbers are expressible by these ten characters or figures; 1 One,

2 3 4 5 6 7
two, three, four, five, six, seven,

8 9 0
eight, nine, cypher. The nine first are called *significant figures* or *digits*. When placed singly they denote, the simple numbers subjoined to the characters. The usual method of notation by these figures is so contrived,

that any character is increased in its value in a tenfold proportion, for every place it is removed to the left, among the other figures with which it is connected. Thus, in these figures 333, the first 3 (reckoning from the right to the left) is 3 ones; the second is 3 tens, and the third is 3 hundreds; in these 2759, the 9 represents 9 ones, and the 5 represents 5 tens, the 7 is 7 hundreds, and the 2 is 2 thousand. And although the cypher signify nothing by itself, yet when put on the right of any of the other figures, it increaseth their value

in the same tenfold proportion above described, merely by changing their position from the place of units to that of tens. Thus, though 2 standing alone, or in the first place, represents only two ones, yet when a cypher is written on the right of it thus, 20, it represents 2 tens, or twenty; and if another cypher be affixed thus, 200, it will represent 2 hundreds, &c.

It has been said, that "there does not seem to be any number naturally adapted for constituting a class of the lowest, or any higher rank to the ex-

clusion of others; that however, as ten has been universally used for this purpose by most nations who have cultivated this science, it is probably the most convenient for general use. Other scales (it is alledged,) may be assumed: thus, if eight were the scale, 6 times 3 would be two classes and two units, and the number 18 would then be represented by 22. If 12 were the scale, 5 times 9 would be three classes and nine units, and 45 would be represented by 39, &c,"

But this theory seems far from being supported by fact.

The universality of the practice of reckoning by tens is allowed even by those who plead for it. The antiquity of it, which is antediluvian, might also be urged as an evidence that it is the most natural classification of numbers. But this is not all. There seems to be a regularity of gradation from the lowest to the highest possible numbers, and a uniformity, of proportion in reckoning them, upon the decadary plan, that is unattainable, if not impracticable by adopting any other mode, or any higher or lower number as

the limit of a class. An additional argument may be drawn from considering how we first acquire our ideas of numbers.

The first elements of arithmetic are acquired during our infancy: for, when a child gathers as many stones together as suits his fancy, and then throws them away, he acquires the first elements of the two capital operations in arithmetic, addition and subtraction. Small numbers are most easily apprehended: a child soon knows what *two* and what *three* is; but has not any distinct notion of *twenty-three*. Experi-

ence removes his difficulty by degrees, and he becomes accustomed to handle larger collections, and to form many units into a class, and several of these classes into one of a higher kind, and thus to advance through as many ranks of classes as occasion requires. If a boy arrange an hundred stones in one row, he would with difficulty reckon them; but if he place them in ten rows of ten stones each, he will reckon an hundred with ease; and if he collect ten such parcels, he will reckon a thousand.

But suppose a teacher should

adopt this mechanical method of teaching a boy arithmetic, and should at the same time take it into his head to reckon by *sevens* or *nines* instead of *tens*, we may readily believe, he would find it a very difficult task to make his pupil entertain any accurate idea of the proportion between the larger and smaller numbers, whatever denomination such a fanciful arithmetician might give them. The ancient Greeks and Romans would have brought the science of arithmetic to a much greater degree of perfection than they ever did,

had they hit upon the method of expressing by TEN DISTINCT CHARACTERS the number by which they reckoned. But the idea of a CYPHER, which can only be introduced into the *decadary* system, and which may be stiled the KEY-STONE *of* ARITHMETIC, seems never to have struck them; and thus, though they reckoned properly enough by tens, yet not having characters proportionate to express their numbers, they involved their arithmetic in a labyrinth of confusion, from which neither a EUCLID nor a ARCHIMEDES, with all their

wonderful mechanical powers, were able to extricate it for want of this clue. In a word, it is to the cypher, in uniform alternation with the nine digits, that the moderns owe the honour of having PERFECTED A SCIENCE, in which the ancients, with all their great attainments, had made but small progress. And perhaps, if all our modern weights and measures, were divided and subdivided upon the decadary plan, instead of into *fourths*, *eighths*, *twelfths*, *sixteenths*, &c that general uniformity of both, so long wanted, might be soon attained.

NUMERATION implies the numbering or reading of numerical characters; or the reckoning any number of things by them. For the more easy numberings, and expeditious reading of large numbers, when they are expressed by figures, they are divided from the right hand towards the left, in periods and half periods, each half period consisting of three figures; the common name of the first period being units, or ones; of the second, millions, of the third billions; of the fourth trillions, &c. Also the first half of any period is so

many ones of it, but the latter half is so many thousands of it. The following example exhibits a summary of this whole doctrine, and may be extended to sextillions, septillions, octillions, nonillions, &c. *ad infinitum.*

9	Hundred Thousands	*Quintillions.*
8	Ten Thousands,	
7	Thousands,	
6,	Hundreds,	
5	Tens,	
4	Units,	
3	Hundred Thousands,	*Quadrillions.*
2	Ten Thousands,	
1,	Thousands,	
9	Hundreds,	
8	Tens,	
7,	Units,	

6	Hundred Thousands,	*Trillions.*
5	Ten Thousands,	
4,	Thousands,	
3	Hundreds,	
2	Tens,	
1,	Units.	
9	Hundred thousands,	*Billions.*
8	Ten thousands,	
7,	Thousands,	
6	Hundreds,	
5	Tens,	
4,	Units,	
3	Hundred thousands	*Millions.*
2	Ten thousands,	
1,	Thousands,	
9	Hundreds,	
8	Tens,	
7,	Units,	
6	Hundred thousands,	*Units.*
5	Ten thousands,	
4,	Thousands,	
3	Hundreds,	
2	Tens,	
1	Units.	

A number expressing a quantity of one name or denomination, is called a *simple number*, as 20 pounds, or 17 gallons, or 5 days; and that representing a quantity of several names, is called a *compound number*, as 13 pounds 5 shillings and 4 pence, or 17 gallons and 2 pints, or 3 hours and 50 minutes.

RULE.

To read or express in words, any number expressed in figures.

Divide the figures in the given number, as in the general example above, into periods and half periods, by any convenient marks; then beginning

at the left, the figures are thus read, viz. the first figure of each half period is named by itself with the word *hundreds*, but the other two are named together; and at the end of the first half of each period, the word *thousands* is named; but at the end of the other half, the common name of the whole period, except it be the units period, whose name is not expressed.

SIMPLE ADDITION.

Simple addition is the finding of one simple number equal to several simple numbers taken all together. The number

which is equal to several taken together is called their sum.

SIMPLE ADDITION may be performed by this RULE.

1. Place the several numbers, to be added, underneath each other, so that the figures of the same name, with respect to units, tens, &c. may be directly under each other.

2. Draw a line under the lowest number; then add up the column of units, and consider how many tens are in the sum, for which you must carry so many ones to the next column, writing down only the excess over and above the tens

below the line straight under its proper column.

3. Add all the columns in the same manner, and the figures below the line will express the sum required.

PROOF. Cut off the uppermost number, by drawing a line below it, Add all the rest of the lines of numbers together, and set their sum below the sum to be proved. Then add this last found number and the uppermost line together, and their sum will be the same as that found by the first addition, when the work is all right.

EXAMPLES.

2591	39481
45927	22
621	6185
13248	17293
7931	26817
70318	89798

SIMPLE SUBTRACTION.

Simple subtraction is the finding how much one simple number exceeds another, or the taking a less simple number out of a greater. The number to be subtracted is called the SUBTRAHEND; and that out of which it is to be taken, is called the MINUEND: also the number remaining after the

one is taken out of the other, is named their *difference.*

SIMPLE SUBTRACTION is performed by the following RULE.

1. Place the subtrahend under the minuend according to the directions given in addition, and draw a line below them.

2. Begin at the right, and subtract each under figure from that which stands above it, writing the remainder straight under them below the line; so shall all the remainders together express the difference required.

3. But when any under figure exceeds that which is above it, conceive 10 to be added to the upper, and subtract the under from the sum; but in this case, you must add 1 to the next undr figure, before you subtract it.

PROOF. Add the difference and subtrahend together, and the sum will be equal to the minuend, when the operation is right.

EXAMPLE.

Minuend,	159327
Substrahend,	61489
	97838
PROOF,	159327

SIMPLE MULTIPLICATION.

Simple multiplication is the finding of a simple number, which shall contain any given simple number a certain proposed number of times; and it is therefore a compendious method of addition.

The two proposed numbers are in general, termed the FACTORS of the multiplication; but in particular, that which is to be multiplied, is called the MULTIPLICAND; and that by which it is multiplied, the MULTIPLIER; the number

found from the operation is named the PRODUCT of the two factors.

Before proceeding to any operations in this rule, the following table of products must be got by heart very perfectly.

MULTIPLICATION TABLE.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27
4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36
5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45
6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54
7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72
9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81

SIMPLE MULTIPLICATION may be performed by the two following RULES.

I. *To* MULTIPLY *by* ANY NUMBER *in the* FIRST *of the foregoing* TABLE *of* PRODUCTS.— Begin at the right of the multiplicand, and multiply each figure in it by the multiplier, writing down the whole of such products as are less than ten; but for such as are just equal to a certain number of tens, write down 0, and carry 1 for each 10 to the next product; and for such as exceed a number of tens,

write down the excess, and carry for the tens as before.

II. *To multiply by a number consisting of several figures.*

1. Write it below the multiplicand, and find the product for each figure in it as in the case, not regarding in what order the lines are found, provided the first figure in each stand straight below its respective multiplier.

2. Add all the lines of products together in the same order as they stand, and the sum will be the whole product required.

Proof. Make the former multiplicand the multiplier, and the multiplier the multiplicand, and proceed as before; and the due product will be the same as before when the work is right. Otherwise, add together the figures in each factor, casting out all the nines in the sums as often as they amount to nine. Multiply the two remainders together, and the nines cast out of their product will leave the same remainder as the nines cast out of the answer when the work is right.

EXAMPLES.

8576	2375	multiplicand.
7	38	multiplier.
60032	19000	
	7125	
	90250	product.

CONTRACTIONS.

I. When there are cyphers at the right of one or both factors, proceed as before, neglecting the cyphers; and to the right of the product, place as many cyphers as are in both factors.

Thus, to multiply 34 by 2700, multiply, 134 by 27, and to the product 3168 join two

cyphers, and we get 316800, the product required.

II. When the multiplier, is the product of two or more numbers in the table, it is often of advantage, to multiply continually by those numbers instead of it.

Thus, to multiply 7964 by 72, or the product of 9 and 8, multiply by 9 and the product 71676, again by 8, thus we get 573408, the product required.

III. When some of the figures of the multiplier may be produced by multiplying some others of them by any number,

it is much easier and more concise after having obtained the product of the less, to multiply that product by the same number for the product of the greater, than to proceed by the common method.

SIMPLE DIVISION.

Simple division is the finding how often one simple number is contained in another; or the dividing of any given simple number into any proposed number of equal parts.

The containing number, or number to be divided, is called the DIVIDEND. The contain-

ed number, or the number of parts into which the dividend is divided, is called the DIVISOR. The number of times the dividend contains the divisor, or the number which expresses one of the equal parts, is called the QUOTIENT, thus:

Dividend.

Divisor 3) 12 (4 Quotient.

Division is a compendious subtraction, the quotient being the number of subtractions in the operation.

SIMPLE DIVISION may be performed by the following RULE:

1. Having written down the

divisor and dividend in the form above, consider if the divisor be less than, or equal to, the same number of the left hand figures of the dividend; if so, wr te the figure expressing the number of times it is contained, in the quotient; but if not, take one place more of the dividend figures than are in the divisor, and write the number of times they contain it in the quotient as before.

2. Multiply the divisor by the quotient figure.

3. Subtract the product from the said dividend figures.

4. To the remainder affix the next dividend figure, and write in the quotient the number of times the divisor is contained in this number; multiply the divisor by the last quotient figure, and subtract the product from the last mentioned number; then proceed as before from the beginning of this article, till all the dividend figures are used.

PROOF. Multiply the quotient by the divisor; to the product add the remainder, and the sum will be equal to the dividend when the work is right.

EXAMPLE.

```
372)58247(156
    372
    ----
    2104
    1860
    ----
     2447
     2232
     ----
remainder 215
```

CONTRACTIONS.

I. Division by a single figure, or by any figure in the first line of the multiplication table, may be expeditiously performed by multiplying and subtracting mentally, and writing down only the quotient below the dividend.

EXAMPLE $7)579325$

$$82760\tfrac{5}{7}$$

II. When the divisor has cyphers on the right of it, strike them off, and divide without them; but the same number of figures must be struck off from the right of the dividend, and affixed to the last remainder.

EXAMPLE. $8{,}00)5734{,}21$

$$716\tfrac{621}{800}$$

III. When the divisor is the product of 2 or more small numbers, it is much easier to divide continually by those numbers, than by the whole divi-

sor at once. If there be any remainders after such divisions multiply the last remainder by the preceding divisor, and to the product add the remainder belonging to the same divisor: then multiply the sum by the next preceding divisor, and to the product add its corresponding remainder: proceed in the same manner through all the divisors and remainders; and the last sum will be the remainder, the same as if the division had been performed at once. After this operation is begun, it must be continued according to the description, though some

of the preceding divisions should happen to have no remainders. So to divide 42901685 by 96 whose component parts are 8 and 12; divide the first by 8, and this quotient by the 12, and the remainders are 5 and 6; then 6 times 8 are 48, to which add the 5, and the sum 53 is the whole remainder to the whole divisor 96.

$$\begin{array}{rr} 8) & 42901685 \\ 12) & 5362710\frac{5}{8} \\ \text{Quotient} & 446182\frac{53}{96} \end{array}$$

IV. One who is pretty ready in division, may, even in the largest divisions, subtract each figure of the product as he

produces it, and write down only the remainders.

EXAMPLE.

$$
\begin{array}{l}
833)3104679(3727\frac{88}{833} \\
\quad\;\; 6056 \\
\quad\;\;\; 2257 \\
\quad\;\;\;\; 5919 \\
\quad\;\;\;\;\;\; 88
\end{array}
$$

REDUCTION.

Reduction is the conversion of numbers from one name to another, but still retaining the same value. If the reduction be to a less name, it is commonly called reduction DESCENDING; but if to a greater, reduction ASCENDING.

RULE. Consider how many of the less name concerned

make 1 of the greater, and by that number multiply the given number if the reduction be descending, but divide if ascending, and the product or quotient will be the value in the other name. When there are names between the proposed and required ones, it is best to reduce the proposed to the next less or greater name, and this to the next less or greater again, and so on, till you have reduced it to the name required.—When, in reduction descending, the proposed is a compound number, you must add, or take in the small numbers in the

name below the greatest, to the same names, as you proceed in the reduction. When, in reduction ascending, you have any remainders after dividing, they will have the same names as their respective dividends, and may be placed after the last quotient, according to the order of their names, the greatest first; so shall the compound number thus formed be the answer.

OF MONEY.

Farthings.	Pence.	Shillings.	Pound.
4	1		
48	12	1	
960	240	20	1

This and the following tables

are to be understood thus: The words at the top are the names of all the numbers straight below them; and all the numbers upon the same line, from right to left, are of equal value: thus in the last line of this table, 960 farthings, 240 pence, 20 shillings, and 1 pound are all equal to each other.

The full weight and value of our gold and silver coin is as below:

GOLD.	VALUE.			WEIGHT.	
	l	*s*	*d*	*dwt.*	*gr.*
A guinea	1	1	0	5	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Half guinea	0	10	6	2	$16\frac{3}{4}$
Q. guinea	0	5	3	1	$8\frac{1}{4}$

SILVER.	Value.		Weight.	
	s	*d*	*dwt.*	*gr.*
A crown	5	0	19	8½
Half-crown	2	6	9	16¼
Shilling	1	0	3	21
Sixpence	0	6	1	22½

The value of gold is nearly 4l. an ounce, or 2d a grain; and silver is nearly 5s an ounce. Also any quantity of gold is to the same weight of standard silver, in the proportion of 15 and 1-14th to 1, or nearly 15 to 1.

TROY WEIGHT.

Grains.	Pennywts.	Ounces.	Pound.
24	1		
480	20	1	
5760	240	12	1

By this weight are weighed jewels, gold, silver, corn, bread,

and liquors. One grain of Troy weight is equal to one grain and a half of sound dry wheat.

APOTHECARIES WEIGHT.

Grains.	Scrup.	Drams.	Ounces.	Pound.
20	1			
60	3	1		
480	24	8	1	
5760	288	96	12	1

This weight is so called, because the apothecaries use it in compounding their medicines; but they buy and sell their drugs by avoirdupoise weight. Apothecaries is the same as troy weight, having only some different divisions.

AVOIRDUPOISE WEIGHT.

Drams.	Ounces.	Pounds.	Quarters.	Hundrs.	Ton.
16	1				
256	16	1			
7168	448	28	1		
28672	1792	112	4	1	
573440	35840	2240	80	20	1

By this weight are weighed all things of a coarse or drossy nature; such as grocery and chandlers wares, and all metals except gold and silver.

			oz.	*dwt.*	*gr*
1 lb. Avoirdupoise makes Troy			14	11	15½
1 oz.	-	-	0	18	5½
1 dr.	-	-	0	1	3½

LONG MEASURE.

Inches.	Feet.	Yards.	Poles.	Furlongs.	Mile.
12	1				
36	3	1			
198	$16\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	1		
7920	660	220	40	1	
63360	5280	1760	320	8	1

An inch is supposed equal to 3 barley corns in length.

4 inch.—a hand.
6 feet, or 2 yards—a fathom.
3 miles—a league.

60 nautical or geographical miles—a degree, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles nearly. 360 degrees, or 25000 miles nearly, are the circumference of the earth.

CLOTH MEASURE.

Inches.	Nails.	Quarters.	Yard
$2\frac{1}{4}$	1		
9	4	1	
36	16	4	1

3 qrs. = 1 ell Flemish.
5 — — English.
6 — — French.
4 qrs. $1\frac{1}{5}$ inch Scotch.

SQUARE OR LAND MEASURE.

Sqr. inch.	Sqr. feet.	Sqr yds.	Sqr. poles.	Roods.	Acre.
144	1				
1296	9	1			
39204	$272\frac{1}{4}$	$30\frac{1}{4}$	1		
1568160	17890	1210	40	1	
6272640	43560	484	60	4	1

SCOTS LAND MEASURE.

Square ells.	Falls.	Roods.	Acre.
36	1		
1440	40	1	
5760	160	4	1

WINE MEASURE.

Pints.	Gallons.	Tres.	Hhds.	Puncheons.	Pipes or Butts.	Ton.
8	1					
336	42	1				
504	63	1½	1			
672	84	2	1⅓	1		
1008	126	3	2	1½	1	
2016	252	6	4	3	2	1

231 cubic inch.—a gallon.
10 gall.—an anker.
18 gall.—a rundlet.
31½ gall.—a barrel.

By this measure, wines, brandies, spirits, perry, cyder mead, vinegar, oil, and honey are measured.

ALE AND BEER MEASURE.

Pints.	Galls.	Firk.	Kilderk.	Bar.	Hhd.
8	1				
68	8½	1			
136	17	2	1		
272	34	4	2	1	
408	51	6	3	1½	1

The ale gallon contains 282 cubic inches.

In London, the ale firkin contain 8 gallons, and the beer firkin 9; the other measures above it being decreased and increased in the same proportion.

DRY MEASURE.

Pints.	Galls.	Pecks.	Bush.	Combs.	Quar.	Weys.	Last.
8	1						
16	2	1					
64	8	4	1				
256	32	16	4	1			
512	64	32	8	2	1		
2560	320	160	40	10	5	1	
5120	640	320	80	20	10	2	1

The gallon dry measure, contains $268\frac{4}{5}$ cubic inches. At London 36 bushels of coals make a chaldron, A bushel water measure is 5 pecks.

By dry measure all dry wares, such as corn, seeds, fruits, roots, sand, salt, coals, oysters, muscles, cockles, &c. are measured.

SCOTS DRY MEASURE.

Lippies.	Pecks.	Firlots.	Bolls.	Chaldr
4	1			
16	4	1		
64	16	4	1	
1024	256	64	16	1

TIME.

Minutes.	Hours.	Days.	Weeks.	Month
60	1			
1440	24	1		
10080	168	7	1	
40320	672	28	4	1

The minute is divided into 60 seconds, and the second may be supposed to be divided into 60 fourths, &c.

REDUCTION DESCENDING.

How many minutes in 29 days 12 hours 45 minutes, or a lunar month?

29 ds. 12 hs. 45 ms
24
———
128
58
———
708
60
———
42525

REDUCTION ASCENDING.

How many pounds. &c. in 35682 pence?

12)35682
———
20)2973s. 6d.
———
148l. 13s. 6d.

HAVING given the principal rules in Simple Arithmetic, we subjoin a few forms of Bills of Parcels in different trades, which without doubt, will be acceptable to our young friends, whether they are intended for commercial, or the more active situations in life.

HOSIER'S.

Mr. John Smith

Bought of Joseph Jackson, March 7, 1795.

			s.	d.		£.
8	Pair of worsted stockings -	at	4	6	*per* pair	
5	Pair of thread ditto - -	at	3	2	- -	
3	Pair of black silk ditto -	at	14	0	- -	
6	Pair of milled hose - -	at	4	2	- -	
4	Pair of cotton ditto - -	at	7	6	- -	
2	Yards of fine flannel -	at	1	8	- -	

£ 7 12 2

MERCER'S.

Mr. John Blades

Bought of James Jones March 7, 1795.

			s.	*d.*		£		
15	Yards of sattin -	at	9	6	*per* yard			
18	Yards of flowered silk	at	17	4	- -			
12	Yards of rich brocade	at	16	8	- -			
16	Yards of sarsenet -	at	3	2	- -			
13	Yards of Genoa velvet	at	27	6	- -			
23	Yards of lutestring -	at	6	3	- -			
						£ 62	2	5

LINEN DRAPER'S.

Mr. Simon Surety

Bough of Josiah Short, 27th March, 1795.

				s.	d.		
4	Yards of cambrick	-	at	12	6 *per* yard	£	
12	Yards of Muslin	-	at	8	3 - - - -		
15	Yards of printed linen		at	5	4 - - - -		
2	dozen of napkins	-	at	2	3 each - -		
14	Ells of diaper	-	at	1	7 *per* ell - -		
35	Ells of dowlas	-	at	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ - -		
						£	17 4 $6\frac{1}{2}$

MILLINER'S.

Mrs. Staples

Bought of Lucy Sanders, April 25, 1795.

			.	*s.*	*d.*		
18	Yards of fine lace	at	0	12	3	*per* yard	£
5	Pair of fine kid gloves	at	0	2	2	*per* pair	
12	Fans of French mounts	at	0	3	6	each	
2	Fine laced tippets -	at	3	3	0		
4	Dozen Irish lamb -	at	0	1	3	*per* pair	
6	Sets of knots -	at	0	2	6	*per* set	

£ 23 14 4

WOOLLEN DRAPER'S.

Mr. Thomas Preston

Bought of Ellis Lardant, April 7, 1795.

			l.	*s.*	*d.*		
17	Yards of fine serge	at	0	3	0	*per* yard	£
18	Yards of drugget	at	0	9	0	- -	
15	Yards of superfine scarlet	at	1	2	0	- -	
16	Yards of Black -	at	0	18	0	- -	
25	Yards of shalloon	at	0	1	9	- -	
17	Yards of drab	at	0	17	6	- -	
							£ 59 5 0

GROCER'S.

William Johnson

Bought of John Smith, April 21, 1765

				s.	d.		
25	lb. of lump sugar	-	at	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$	*per lb.*	£
2	loaves of double re- fined, weight 15lb.		at	0	$11\frac{1}{2}$	- -	
14	lb. of rice	-	at	0	3	- -	
28	lb. of Malaga raisins		at	0	5	- -	
15	lb. of currants	-	at	0	$5\frac{1}{2}$	- -	
7	lb. of black pepper		at	1	10	- -	

£ 3 2 $9\frac{1}{2}$

WOOLLEN DRAPER'S.

Mr. Thomas Preston

Bought of Ellis Lardant, April 7, 1795.

			l.	*s.*	*d.*		
17	Yards of fine serge	at	0	3	0	*per* yard	£
18	Yards of drugget	at	0	9	0	- -	
15	Yards of superfine scarlet	at	1	2	0	- -	
16	Yards of Black -	at	0	18	0	- -	
25	Yards of shalloon	at	0	1	9	- -	
17	Yards of drab	at	0	17	6	- -	
							£ 59 5 0

GROCER'S.

William Johnson

Bought of John Smith, April 21, 1765

			s.	d.		£	s.	d.
25	lb. of lump sugar -	at	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$	*per lb.*			
2	loaves of double re- fined, weight 15lb.	at	0	$11\frac{1}{2}$	- -			
14	lb. of rice -	at	0	3	- -			
28	lb. of Malaga raisins	at	0	5	- -			
15	lb. of currants -	at	0	$5\frac{1}{2}$	- -			
7	lb. of black pepper	at	1	10	- -			
						£ 3	2	$9\frac{1}{2}$

CHEESEMONGER'S

Mr. Joseph Frith

Bought of Samuel Fuller, April 23, 1795

			s.	d.		£		
8	lb. of Cambridge butter	at	0	6	*per lb.*			
17	lb. of new cheese -	at	0	4	- -			
$\frac{1}{2}$	Fir. of butter, wt. 28 lb.	at	0	$5\frac{1}{2}$	- -			
5	Cheshire cheeses, wt. 127 lb.	at	0	4	- -			
2	Warwickshire do. wt. 15 lb.	at	0	3	- -			
12	lb. of cream cheese	at	0	6	- -			
						£ 3	14	7

FINIS.

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